Employee-Coworker Work-Life Value Congruence: The Effects on Work-Life Conflict, Turnover Intentions, and Burnout

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Abstract

As organizations become increasingly flattened (i.e., weaker hierarchies and more team-based job designs), employees' relationships with coworkers are more essential. It is imperative, then, to study employees' perceptions of coworkers in management research to fully understand the effect of coworkers on employee well-being, performance, and stress. For example, coworkers can provide emotional support and instrumental support for employees struggling with work-life balance. The present study investigates how employees might benefit when they work with coworkers who have congruent work-life values. Specifically, I use both conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and person-environment fit theory (Kristof-Brown, 1996) to explain why having congruent values with ones coworkers is associated with increased perceptions of work-life support from their workgroup (FSWP) and lower work-life conflict, turnover intentions, and emotional exhaustion. Results from 418 working adults demonstrated employee-coworker value congruence was related to emotional exhaustion and turnover intensions through the serial mediation of FSWP and work-life conflict. Furthermore, family-supportive supervisor behaviors moderated the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP. Theoretical and practical implications and future directions are also discussed.

Keywords: value congruence, work-life conflict, coworkers

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Undeniably, the structure of organizations is shifting. Dramatic changes to the world of work have occurred over the past decades leading to organizations with weaker hierarchies and more emphasis on team-based and group-based work (Cascio, 1995; Porter & Schneider, 2014). As such, coworkers have a unique influence over employees' work motivation, well-being, and stress. Past research on social networks at work demonstrates that people at work (i.e., employees and coworkers) socially influence each other via shared affect and support (Totterdell, Wall, Holman, Diamond, & Epitropaki, 2004).

Coworkers and groups often affect employees' work-life balance. The negative form of work-life balance, or work-life conflict, is commonly studied in the fields of Industrial-Organizational Psychology, Human Resources, and Management (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Kinnunen, Feldt, Mauno, & Rantanen, 2010). Work-life conflict is defined as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). There are many negative consequences of work-life conflict such as absenteeism (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003), burnout (Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999), and job dissatisfaction (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004).

One way to reduce the impact of stressors, like work-life conflict, on strain outcomes is to rely on social support. For example, researchers have found that surrounding yourself with people who have similar values yields many favorable outcomes. Beyond organizational research, researchers in marriage (Ton & Hansen, 2001) and politics (Croucher & Upchurch, 2012) have corroborated that perceived fit and congruence of values lead to higher satisfaction

and success for all parties. For example, married couples who have similar values and priorities for work and marital roles report higher marital satisfaction and marital motivation (Ton & Hansen, 2001). Similarly, politicians are more likely to yield cooperation from union leaders and other citizens when they maintain political congruence with constituents (Croucher & Upchurch, 2012).

In organizational research, researchers have investigated value congruence with three main referents: the supervisor, the organization, and coworkers. Results demonstrate that employees who perceive they have congruent values with their supervisor or organization are less likely to leave the organization, perform more citizenship behaviors, and experience greater career satisfaction (Cable & DeRue, 2002). In regards to work-life balance, when employees perceive they have congruent work-life values with their supervisor or organization, they report less work-life conflict (Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001; Pan & Yeh, 2012; Thompson, Brough, & Schmidt, 2006). Employee-supervisor value congruence is pivotal as supervisors often act as the gatekeepers of work-life policy implementation and family-support (Clark, 2000). Furthermore, employee-organization work-life value congruence is associated with higher job satisfaction and commitment, and lower work-life conflict (Chen, Powell, & Greenhaus, 2009; Kreiner, 2006).

Despite what we know regarding the role of supervisors and organizations, there is still much we do not know regarding employee-coworker value congruence and its effect on work-life conflict. That is, we do not fully understand how perceived work-life value congruence with coworkers may reduce work-life conflict. The aim of the present study is to fill this void by researching how employee-coworker value congruence influences work-life conflict and other important employee outcomes. Specifically, I draw upon the conservation of resources theory

(Hobfoll, 1989) and person-environment fit theory (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown, 1996) to explain how employee-coworker value congruence may reduce work-life conflict by increasing family-supportive workgroup perceptions and, by extension, reduce turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, I answer the call by Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, and Zimmerman (2011, p. 147) for researchers to "examine the . . . [relationship between family-supportive supervisor behaviors] . . . and family-to-work interaction" by examining whether family-supportive supervisor behaviors may enhance the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and family-supportive workgroup perceptions.

Both practitioners and researchers alike can garner much from the results of the study. Because organizations are designing jobs to be more team- and group-based, the effects of colleagues and coworkers are becoming increasingly important. Thus, I add to the existing literature on work-life conflict by investigating how perceived congruence with coworkers may play an important role in relieving work-life conflict by providing family-support from the workgroup.

To fully explain my theoretical rationale, I first summarize what past research illustrates regarding antecedents and consequences of work-life conflict. Then I use conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to explain how coworker social support can act as a resource that decreases work-life conflict. Next, I discuss how employee-coworker value congruence affects work-life conflict by expounding on person-environment theory (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown, 1996). I then discuss how employee-coworker value congruence affects work-life conflict through family-supportive workgroup perceptions and by extension also reduces turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion. Lastly, I discuss how supervisor family-support

moderates the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and family-supportive workgroup perceptions.

Work-Life Conflict

Balancing the roles of work and nonwork is a universal stressor that many employees struggle to manage. In fact, the interface between work and nonwork, or work-life balance, is researched in several fields due to its prevalence in society (Amstad et al., 2011; Kinnunen et al., 2010). Both work and nonwork demand time and energy on a daily basis and conflict when employees lack sufficient resources to manage the dueling roles. Work-life conflict is defined as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

The term used to describe work-life conflict is mixed in the literature. For example, whereas some researchers use the term "work-life conflict" (e.g., Grawitch, Maloney, Barber, & Mooshegian, 2013), others have used "work-family conflict" (e.g., Allen & Finkelstein, 2014), "family interfering with work" and "work interfering with family" (e.g., FIW; WIF; Huffman, Casper, & Payne, 2014), "work-home conflict" (e.g., ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), and "work-nonwork conflict" (e.g., Reichl, Leiter, & Spinath, 2014) to describe the same phenomenon. Some researchers suggest that calling the nonwork domain "family" is constricting as many employees struggle with work and nonwork even when they do not have a traditional family. Thus, to illustrate how conflict can persist for all employees regardless of family status, I use the term "work-life conflict" throughout.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) describe three types of work-life conflict: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based. Time-based conflict occurs because employees simply do not have unlimited time to handle work and nonwork responsibilities. Because everyone is bound by

a limited number of reasonable working hours in a day, time-based work-life conflict can occur. For example, employees often have to choose between attending work-events (e.g., meetings) or family events (e.g., a child's school play). Strain-based conflict occurs when work and nonwork roles are incompatible and when employees are strained to handle all of the family and nonwork demands. That is, an employee may feel anxiety stemming from overwhelming work demands that spills over into anxiety at home. Lastly, behavior-based conflict occurs when employees are pressured to behave in a certain way in one role that conflicts with behavioral pressures in another. For example, a stringent, authoritarian manager may get the job done at work but struggle to switch to a loving, affectionate mother at home. Thus, behaviors at work or nonwork can be conflicting when used in an inappropriate setting. Because it takes effort and self-awareness to switch from one behavioral role to another, employees can often experience stress. All types of work-life conflict (time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based) are prevalent for today's workers and research has proven it leads to detrimental consequences for employees.

Consequences of Work-Life Conflict

In a comprehensive review of work-life conflict outcomes, Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton (2000) posit there are three types of consequences that can occur when employees experience work-life conflict: nonwork-related, work-related, and stress-related. Employees who experience work-life conflict have detrimental nonwork-related outcomes in the form of lower subjective well-being (Matthews, Wayne, & Ford, 2014), as well as lower family satisfaction, life satisfaction, and spousal satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000). Examples of work-related consequences stemming from employee work-life conflict include higher rates of absenteeism (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003), job dissatisfaction (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004), and suffered productivity (Witt & Carlson, 2006). In

particular, work-life conflict has been studied as an antecedent to intention to quit (i.e., turnover intention; Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011). When employees endure the dueling roles of work and nonwork, a common coping mechanism is to withdraw from one or both roles because both work and personal demands require employees to exert resources. When these resources are depleted and result in work-life conflict, employees may detach from work to conserve resources and report a higher intention to quit their job. Specifically, Nohe and Sonntag (2014) demonstrate how employees quit as a means to reduce work-life conflict to better meet nonwork demands. In a study of Air Force personnel, Rode, Rehg, Near, and Underhill (2007) revealed that work-life conflict is positively related to turnover intentions through the mediation of job satisfaction and life satisfaction. That is, employees were more likely to report an intention to quit their jobs due to work-life conflict because they experience a decrease in satisfaction with their work and personal lives.

Work-life conflict can also negatively influence employee stress and health as researched by occupational health researchers (e.g., van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009). For example, work-life conflict can lead to psychological symptoms such as higher depression and substance abuse (Allen et al., 2000) and objective health indicators such as higher cholesterol levels and body mass indices and poorer physical stamina (van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009). Specifically, many researchers have investigated the positive relationship between work-life conflict and burnout, or a state in which "energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness" (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, p. 34). Maslach and Leiter (1997) describe the "burnout syndrome" with three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. Emotional exhaustion occurs when the employee feels strained and emotionally drained by work and family demands. Additionally, employees might

be cynical when they emotionally distance themselves away from the job and/or home. The third dimension, professional efficacy, relates to a decrease in felt personal accomplishment. Because managing work and nonwork requires spending resources, employees who experience work-life conflict often report higher emotional exhaustion. In fact, a recent meta-analysis by Reichl et al. (2014) indicates that both work-to-life conflict (r=.51) and life-to-work conflict (r=.27) have significant, positive relationships with emotional exhaustion.

Theories of Work-Life Conflict

The many theories describing the formation and consequences of work-life conflict stem from resource allocation. The first oft-cited theory is conservation of resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989). Many researchers, including Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) and Witt and Carlson (2006), argue that COR theory offers a fitting theoretical foundation for understanding the formation of work-life conflict. The central tenet of COR theory is people are motivated to maintain and gain resources that help attain goals. According to COR theory, everyone is equipped with a finite supply of resources (e.g., energies, time, and effort) that can be given away or replenished through various activities. Because work and nonwork demands require an expenditure of resources, due to the restrictions of hours in the day and physical stamina, employees may not have enough time and energy to fully commit to work and nonwork domains. When work and personal demands deplete employees' resource supply, employees become more sensitive to stressors which can intensify physiological and emotional strain due to increased levels of both actual and anticipatory stress.

COR is similar to the job demands-resource model (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) which also suggests resources play a pivotal role in reducing strain. According to the JD-R model, in order to handle job demands, perform well, and experience less strain, one must have

an adequate supply of resources. The JD-R model states that when job demands increase (e.g., work-life conflict) or job resources decrease (e.g., less supervisor or coworker support) employees may experience negative outcomes such as job dissatisfaction and burnout. For example, when nonwork demands deplete one's resources, dealing with job demands becomes more taxing and straining.

Social Support and Work-Life Conflict

One powerful resource that can help employees adequately perform both job and personal duties is social support (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Hobfoll, 1989). According to the major theories of work-life conflict, social support can act as a resource, a powerful buffering mechanism that aids employees in balancing the roles of work and nonwork (Hammer et al., 2007). Past research finds that support from one's coworkers, supervisor, and organization decreases work-life conflict by increasing both affective and instrumental resources (Boyar, Campbell, Mosley, & Carson, 2014; Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007; ten Brummelhuis, Oosterwaal, & Bakker, 2012).

There are four main sources of support that can aid employees in coping with work-life conflict: the supervisor, the organization (e.g., via family-friendly policies), nonwork supporters (e.g., spouses or friends), and peers at work (e.g., coworkers; Boyar et al., 2014; ten Brummelhuis et al., 2012). Balancing work and nonwork requires employees to use a great deal of mental, physical, and emotional resources, but the support from these entities can replenish any resource-loss (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Hobfoll, 1989). According to COR theory, social support from supervisors, organization, nonwork supporters, and peers at work increases one's resources and buffers potential adverse effects of stressors. All of these constituents can provide supportive resources through emotional support (e.g., nurturance through empathy and

acceptance), tangible resources (e.g, financial assistance), information (e.g., advice), companionship (e.g., sense of belonging), or other intangible devices (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Social support can affect stressors and strain via the buffering hypothesis or the direct effects (i.e., main effects) hypothesis. According to the buffering hypothesis, social support can buffer the relationship between stressors and strain, thereby diminishing the relationship between stressors and strain. For example, if an employee is struggling with an abusive supervisor (stressor), coworkers can provide social support through advice which may diminish the employee's emotional exhaustion (strain). The direct effects hypothesis refers to how social support may lead to employees' reduced appraisal of workplace stressors. For example, an employee may not even appraise having an abusive supervisor as a stressor when they receive advice and other social support from coworkers. In work-life conflict research, social support has been found to both directly diminish and buffer the effects of work-life conflict (Ferguson, Carlson, Zivnuska, & Whitten, 2012; Lapierre & Allen, 2006).

Much research has been conducted on the role of supervisor and organizational support. A meta-analysis conducted by Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, and Hammer (2011) investigated the relationship between supervisor and organizational support on work-life conflict. They found that family-specific supervisor and organizational support was more strongly related to work-life conflict than general supervisor and organizational support. Research has also shown that not all social relationships are equal. In fact, past studies have demonstrated employees benefit most when they are similar and hold congruent values to those in their social support system (Ghosh, 2014).

Value Congruence

Value congruence stems from person-environment fit theory (P-E fit; Kristof-Brown,

1996), which describes how the environment satisfies a person's needs, values, or preferences. When employees perceive that their environment satisfies their preferences, they achieve "fit." P-E fit has many benefits including greater satisfaction and commitment (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

According to P-E fit theory, there are two types of fit: supplementary fit and complementary fit (Kristof-Brown, 1996). Supplementary fit occurs when a person "supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics similar to other individuals in an environment" (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 269). Complementary fit refers to when a person's own characteristics "makes whole" the environment and provides a missing component. There is also a distinction between objective fit and subjective fit. Objective fit is the congruence between one's values and the reported values of the target (e.g., the organization). Subjective fit refers to the perception of fit. Research shows that perceptions of the environment (i.e., subjective fit) are more strongly related to attitudes than objective fit (Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Ostroff, Yuhyung, & Kinicki, 2005).

P-E fit theory suggests that "value congruence" is a distinct operationalization of P-E fit. Kristof-Brown (1996) refers to value congruence as person-culture fit or the fit between an employee's values and another's values. In fact, O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991, p. 492) state "congruency between an individual's value and those of an organization may be at the crux of person-culture fit." Perceived value congruence is a type of supplementary, subjective fit as individuals must perceive they hold similar values as other members in their environment. Kristof-Brown (1996, p. 5) uses the term values congruence and P-E fit as "equivalent terms"; therefore, to stay consistent with these researchers, I use value congruence henceforth.

Values are "fundamental and relatively enduring" beliefs that guide our behavior (Chatman, 1991, p. 459). Being in an environment with individuals who hold congruent values is associated with beneficial outcomes. There are many examples of this in management research. For example, in their meta-analysis, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) found that value congruence had moderate to large relationships with job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention. Further, Ashkanasy and O'Connor (1997) reported that employees with congruent values with their leader report greater leader-member exchange quality. Teams with members who perceive higher value congruence experience greater team identification and team innovation (Mitchell, Parker, Giles, Joyce, & Chiang, 2012). In recruitment and selection research, Judge and Cable (1997) found that applicants with both objective and subjective fit reported greater organizational attractiveness. Moreover, research shows that employees with greater value congruence have access to organizational support and resources congruent with their values (Chen et al., 2009).

Work-Life Value Congruence

In the work-life literature, researchers find employees also benefit when they perceive that they work in an environment with others who hold congruent work-life values (Pan & Yeh, 2012; Thompson et al., 2006). Examples of work-life values are the prioritization of work or personal goals over one another (Masuda & Sortheix, 2012), strategies for managing the boundaries between work and nonwork (Pan & Yeh, 2012), individual coping strategies (Cohen, 2009), or a combination of these (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Nielson et al., 2001; Thompson et al., 2006).

Past research indicates employees who perceive they have incongruent work-life values with supervisors (Thompson et al., 2006) and organizations (Pan & Yeh, 2012) report higher

work-life conflict, emotional exhaustion, and lower job satisfaction. While supervisors and organizations are undeniably an important source of workplace family-support, in today's workplace it is important to investigate the role of coworkers. That is, while past research has investigated value congruence with supervisors and the organization, the question remains, what happens when one's work-life values are incongruent with coworkers in the workgroup in which one works?

Employee-Coworker Work-Life Value Congruence

Several work-life researchers have investigated the roles of coworkers and work-life balance by demonstrating how general coworker support abates work-life conflict (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Major, Fletcher, Davis, & Germano, 2008; McManus, Korabik, Rosin, & Kelloway, 2002; ten Brummelhuis, Oosterwaal, & Bakker, 2012; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). These researchers found employees who report having overall supportive coworkers also report lower levels of work-life conflict. For example, results from a meta-analysis conducted by Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, and Baltes (2011) indicated a negative average correlation between general coworker support and work-life conflict (r=-.25).

Applying COR theory, it makes sense that general coworker support decreases work-life conflict. Namely, coworker support acts as a resource in the form of emotional and instrumental support for employees (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; House, 1981). By providing social support, coworkers can directly reduce the amount of resources (e.g., time, attention, energy) employees need to expend in order to perform either job or personal duties. While valuable, general coworker support may not tell the whole story regarding coworkers' effect on work-life balance.

In work-life research, results from pivotal studies demonstrate the necessity of researching *work-life specific* constructs instead of general constructs because work-life support

consistently has a stronger relationship with work-life conflict and job attitudes than general support (e.g., Kossek et al., 2011). In their meta-analysis, Kossek et al. (2011) reported that family-specific support (i.e., family-specific supervisor and organizations support) is more strongly related to work-life conflict than general support (i.e., general supervisor and organizational support). To extend past research on general coworker support and its effect on work-life conflict, we should devote our efforts to studying the effects of value congruence with coworkers based on work-life values (and not just general coworker support). For the sake of brevity, I will henceforth refer to employee-coworker work-life value congruence in the current study as "employee-coworker value congruence."

Employee-coworker value congruence fills gaps in the literature from past research on "work-life culture." Specifically, some researchers have used work-life culture to try to explain the shared values among colleagues and supervisors (Major et al., 2008; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Thompson et al. (1999, p. 394) defines work-life culture as ''the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives." Major et al. (2008) also used a similar definition of work-life culture and investigated its impact on work-life conflict. In a multilevel study of 10 organizations, Major and colleagues (2008) concluded that shared work-life values facilitate a supportive environment among supervisors and coworkers that reduces work-life conflict. However, they measured "work-life culture" with subscales of managerial support for family, career consequences, and organizational job demands, exclusive of perceptions of coworker influence. Moreover, they used Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX, Graen, 1976) to describe the relationship between supervisors and employees instead of supervisor family-support. Thus, while Major et al. (2008) is a valuable study that demonstrates

the impact of work-life culture, there are still gaps in the literature for better understanding of employee-coworker value congruence and supervisor family-support.

Employee-coworker value congruence is different from work-life culture. Work-life culture includes perceptions of managers, job demands, and organizational policies, and does not discern the specific effect of coworkers on work-life conflict. Employee-coworker value congruence, on the other hand, assesses congruence at the specific level between an employee and his or her coworkers. Cable and DeRue (2002) found that employees can differentiate congruence from the referent against which fit is assessed (e.g., person-organization, person-supervisor, person-career), thus there may be utility in investigating the effects of congruence between employees and coworkers, specifically.

Employee-coworker value congruence can in and of itself act as a resource. This process is best expressed using key principles from both COR and P-E fit theories. Indeed, associating COR and P-E fit theories is not unprecedented. Hobfoll himself (2001, p. 343) states "many of the ideas central to COR theory overlap with those in P-E fit theory's original formulation . . . P-E fit theory made a seminal contribution to the stress literature by arguing that it is the fit . . . or lack thereof that constitutes stress." Following P-E fit theory and COR theory, when employees perceive they possess similar work-life values with their coworkers, they will benefit in two ways. First, employees will perceive that they directly receive better allocated family-support from their coworkers (i.e., increased resources), thereby reducing work-life conflict. Second, employees will indirectly benefit by being in an environment with informal social norms that match their preferences. According to P-E fit theory, employees benefit by having congruent work-life values with their coworkers through improved communication, predictability in their environment, interpersonal attraction, and trust (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

To illustrate, I provide two examples in which Dorothy has congruent values and Stephen has incongruent values with their respective workgroups. Dorothy works in a group with coworkers who share her work-life values. Dorothy and her coworkers share similar views of balancing work and family, and, as such, her coworkers are able to provide better allocated affective and instrumental support. That is, her coworkers could mentor her, talk to her about family-issues, and be willing to help with job demands when a family crisis emerges. With this type of work-life support, Dorothy experiences reduced work-life conflict.

Conversely, Stephen works in a group with coworkers who do not share his work-life values. While Stephen believes in shared family responsibilities between him and his spouse, his coworkers have stay-at-home spouses that take care of most of the family duties and see work as a top priority for all employees. Stephen's coworkers may be unsympathetic to his family demands and create a hostile environment in which work is the absolute top priority and family is never discussed at work. With this lack of work-life support, Stephen has poor social support and will experience greater work-life conflict and strain.

According to P-E fit and COR theories, having congruent work-life values with one's coworkers indicates the presence of coworkers who can more readily provide resources in the form of emotional support, instrumental support, informational support, and companionship. Further, prior research demonstrates employees who perceive having shared work-life values with supervisors and organizations report less work-life conflict (Major et al., 2008; Pan & Yeh, 2012; Thompson et al., 1999). Extending the results from past studies demonstrating the negative relationship between shared work-life values and work-life conflict, and integrating basic elements of P-E fit theory and COR theory, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1. Employee-coworker value congruence is negatively related to work-life conflict.

Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions (FSWP)

In the past, the family-friendliness of one's work environment was narrowly defined as the availability of formal policies and benefits (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Examples of formal family-friendly benefits are flexible work arrangements (i.e., variable work schedule), job sharing (i.e., two or more people work part-time to fulfill a job normally filled by one person), maternity and paternity leave, onsite child care, and elder care arrangements. There may even be industry-specific policies in place such as the "stop the clock" policy of academic institutions. The "stop the clock" policy allows tenure-track faculty to temporarily stop the tenure clock for nonwork reasons (e.g., health, child-care, elder care). All of these policies are designed to help employees balance work and nonwork duties; however, research shows the availability of formal policies is not the be-all end-all in reducing work-life conflict. For example, an organization may offer a form of formal work-life policies "on the books," but employees may not view these policies as genuine or there is a culture which dissuades usage (Kirby & Krone, 2002; Thompson et al., 1999).

Recent research demonstrates that the essential psychological process through which the availability of family-friendly policies affects work-life conflict is by facilitating subjective perceptions of family support (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013). Allen (2001) labeled these subjective perceptions of family-support from one's working organization as "family-supportive organization perceptions." Family-supportive organization perceptions are defined as "global perceptions that employees form regarding the extent . . . [to which] . . . the organization is family-supportive" (Allen, 2001, p. 416).

The beneficial consequences of family-supportive organization perceptions is grounded in organizational support theory (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). Perceived organizational support (POS; Eisenberger et al., 1986) is defined as an employee's "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (p. 501). Organizational support theory operates under the sociological principles of reciprocity and social exchange theory (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976). Specifically, when employees feel valued by their organization, they will reciprocate with improved productivity (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) and citizenship behaviors (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Peelle, 2007).

Organizational family-support, according to COR theory, can act as a resource that stops the "resource loss spiral" that commonly occurs for employees balancing work and personal demands (Hobfoll, 2001). Because work and family both require a drain on one's resources to attend to dueling roles, employees often find themselves emotionally exhausted from a lack of resources. Demerouti, Bakker, and Bulters (2004) describe this vicious resource loss cycle. First, job demands lead to work-life conflict, which, in turn, leads to emotional exhaustion. Consequently, greater exhaustion leads to even more work-life conflict and work and personal pressures over an extended period of time. Organizational family-support impedes this resource loss cycle by providing family-conflicted employees with additional resources to juggle work and nonwork demands (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005). In addition to reducing work-life conflict, organizational family-support is related to greater job, family, and life satisfaction (Lapierre et al., 2008; Thompson et al., 1999).

While past research has demonstrated the organization as a whole can provide family-support indirectly and directly, more research is needed to study family-support in an employee's more proximate working environment. In particular, because team-based and group-based work are becoming increasingly common in today's jobs, it is important to fill a gap in the literature by investigating family-supportive *workgroup* perceptions (FSWP).

Employees' relationships and social interactions with coworkers form the basis for the perceptions of the workgroup. In fact, organizational support theory describes how individuals with whom employees work can symbolically embody the working environment as a whole through socialization (Eisenberger et al., 2010). Research on socialization illustrates how employees use the relationships and social interactions with coworkers to form assessments about the work environment as a whole (Morrison, 1993; Zagenczyk et al., 2010). Socialization is the process through which new employees become accustomed and imbedded in organizational culture (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Feldman, 1976b; Morrison, 1993). New employees learn about formal and informal policies by seeking information from coworkers and supervisors. Past research finds that the employees more readily rely on coworkers than supervisors during the socialization process to understand organizational rules and norms (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Moreover, Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, and Rohdieck (2004) reasoned that processes that occur during socialization (e.g., interactions with coworkers, asking questions, and observing the behavior of others) influence support perceptions.

Bolstered by P-E fit theory, it follows logically that having congruent values with coworkers will lead to positive subjective feelings of being supported by the workgroup as a whole. That is, when employees feel they have congruent work-life values with their coworkers, they are more likely to feel the workgroup in which they work is also family-supportive. During

the socialization phase, coworkers with congruent work-life values are likely to encourage family-supportive norms and rules of the workgroup. Specifically, employees who share work-life values with coworkers receive work-life support from their workgroup both directly and indirectly. Employees can directly receive family-support through both affective support (e.g., being sympathetic, listening to problems, showing care and concern for family concerns) and instrumental support (e.g., offering to switch duties or take over a shift) from coworkers who share similar work-life values. For example, coworkers could share similar work-life values regarding the importance of taking care of personal matters. The rules and norms of the workgroup would support employees' efforts to perform personal duties. This may transpire in various ways such as other coworkers covering Kristen's morning shifts when she drives her elderly father to the doctor, providing emotional support for Shelly as she goes through a divorce, or demonstrating role modeling for a new father, Vince, in coping with raising a newborn and doing his job.

In addition to getting support directly from their coworkers, employees who share values with their coworkers are indirectly supported by perceiving they have greater access to family-friendly benefits. When an employee has incongruent values with coworkers, he or she may feel pressured by the shared expectations of coworkers on how to best prioritize work and family demands. As such, that employee may avoid using policies that are not in alignment with the values of their coworkers for fear of being ostracized, rejected, or otherwise devalued by their workgroup. For example, a tenure-track faculty member wants to prioritize family but works with other faculty members who prioritize work and/or let a significant-other handle most family duties. The tenure-track faculty member may feel pressured and avoid using family-friendly policies such as the "stop the clock" policy for fear of not fitting in. Past studies have indeed

found many employees fear using family-friendly benefits due to a culture of misuse or perceived backlash (Kirby & Krone, 2002; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). In fact, Saltzman (1997, p. 1) criticized work-life policies as "a paradox of the American workplace" due to the fact that many employees forgo using them for fear of career and social repercussions. Yet, when employees work with coworkers who share similar work-life values, the fear of using work-life policies is likely to diminish.

According to P-E fit theory, employees who share congruent values with others in their environment are more likely to perceive their environment fulfills their socio-emotional needs and supports their overall well-being (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007). Thus, employees' perceived work-life value congruence will be positively related to perceptions of workgroup family-support. Following COR theory and P-E fit theory, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2. Employee-coworker value congruence is positively related to FSWP.

In addition to being an outcome of value congruence, FSWP may also mediate the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict. That is, the process through which employee-coworker value congruence reduces work-life conflict is by increasing perceived levels of family-support from the workgroup (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Conversely, when employees' work-life values are not suited with their workgroup, employees are more likely to feel that their workgroup ignores or is unsupportive of their work-life balance. Theoretically, the lack of workgroup family-support will intensify perceptions of work-life conflict.

In an organizational context, Allen (2001) demonstrated that family-supportive organizational perceptions mediate the relationship between supervisor support and work-life conflict. Allen (2001, p. 419) suggests it is due to the fact that "cognitions concerning the

organization may serve as a mediator in transmitting the effect of [family-supportive supervisors] on work-life conflict and job attitudes." This rationale can extend to perceptions of the workgroup mediating the relationship between coworkers and work-life conflict as well.

Thus, I draw upon P-E fit theory and extend the findings of past research to hypothesize that employee-coworker value congruence will have an indirect, negative effect on work-life conflict through a positive relationship with FSWP. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3. FSWP mediates the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict (see Figure 1).

Employee-Coworker Value Congruence and Job Attitudes

Turnover Intentions

In addition to work-life conflict, employee-coworker value congruence can also impact important employee attitudes. A crucial job attitude to consider when researching organizational behavior is turnover intentions, as it is the best predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000).

According to Lee et al.'s (1999) unfolding model of turnover, employees make a plan to leave their organization when they find it does not fit with their personal goals and values. For example, one precursor to turnover is an "image violation," a condition wherein "an individual's values, goals, and strategies for goal attainment do not fit with those of the organization" (Holtom et al., 2008, p. 247). A "shock" occurs when a specific event initiates the psychological analysis involved in quitting. For example, an employee with incongruent work-life values may be severely chastised by peers for missing a meeting to attend his daughter's graduation. In this case, being rebuked acts as a shock that initiates the employee to realize there is an image violation (i.e., incongruent values) with the workgroup. As such, this employee will start making a plan to leave the workgroup or company.

P-E fit theory also supports the notion that having incongruent values with others in your environment can increase turnover (Cable & Judge, 1996). This is consistent with Schneider's (1987) Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) model which suggests that employees are attracted to a particular workgroup in part based on value congruence (attraction), the workgroup members hire applicants who share congruent values (selection), and employees with incongruent values "self-select" out via voluntary turnover (attrition).

Many researchers have replicated the finding that P-E fit is negatively related to turnover intentions (Cable & Judge, 1996; Leiter, Jackson, & Shaugnessy, 2009; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005; Somers, 2010; Vandenberghe, 1999). In a meta-analysis conducted by Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner (2003), the results indicate that the mean effect size for person-organization fit and turnover intentions is -.18.

When employees have incongruent work-life values with their coworkers, they are less likely to receive adequate work-life support from others in their work environment. Due to this incongruence and following ASA, employees will be more motivated to leave the organization in order to remove themselves from a place of poor fit. Extending the findings of past research on general value congruence and turnover intentions and integrating core tenets of P-E fit theory, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4. Employee-coworker value congruence is negatively related to turnover intentions.

Employee-Coworker Value Congruence and Health

Emotional Exhaustion

In addition to affecting work-life conflict and turnover intentions, employee-coworker value congruence may also be related to employee health and well-being. Burnout is a

commonly studied outcome variable when researching employees' well-being. Burnout references a state in which "energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness (Maslach & Leiter, 1997, p. 34). Much research has examined the relationship between employees' dueling roles at home and at work and burnout. While burnout was originally defined as only affecting employees in human services positions, researchers have studied burnout across various occupations such as newspaper managers (Montgomery, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Den Ouden, 2003), nurses (Burke & Greenglass, 2000), and clinical psychologists (Rupert, Stevanovic, & Hunley, 2009). In particular, past studies have focused on emotional exhaustion as it is commonly used as the key indicator of burnout (e.g., Greenbaum, Quade, Mawritz, Kim, & Crosby, 2014; Liu, Wang, Chang, Shi, Zhou, & Shao, 2014). To stay consistent with past research, I will use emotional exhaustion as the key indicator of burnout in the present study.

No doubt, managers across all occupations should pay attention to employee burnout as it has a very real and severe impact, not only on the employee but also on the organization. Burnout can directly affect the employee and has been linked to physiological illnesses (Toppinen-Tanner, Ahola, Koskinen, & Väänänen, 2009) and safety outcomes such as accidents and unsafe behavior (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hoffman, 2011). Also, burnout indirectly affects the organization as a whole when it leads to withdrawal (Leung & Lee, 2006), turnover intentions, or a decrease in job performance (Bakker, Van Emmerik, & Van Riet, 2008).

Both P-E fit and COR theories provide explanations for why having a mismatch of work-life values with one's coworkers can increase burnout. In a comprehensive review of antecedents of burnout, Leiter and Maslach (2004) describe how burnout often results from chronic mismatches of values between the employee and the organization. Leiter and Maslach (2004)

explain that employees who do not share the same values with the organization make trade-offs every day between what they want to do and what is socially acceptable to do. Over time, this tension resulting from conflicting values can manifest as burnout. For example, an employee, Chuck, wishes to maintain his work-life balance by leaving work at 4 o'clock every day to spend his afternoons with his wife and children. His coworkers, on the other hand, work until 8 o'clock every day to prove their devotion to the job. Tension builds from the incongruent values he shares with his coworkers because Chuck has to make trade-offs between fitting in to his workgroup and acting in the best interest of his work-life values every day. Over time, this tension builds and makes Chuck emotionally exhausted.

Similarly, Hobfoll (2001) uses COR theory to describe how values and the culture of one's environment affect stressors and strain. He posits that value incongruence itself can directly diminish resources and/or threaten resource-loss. As stated previously, having congruent work-life values with coworkers increases resources both directly through emotional and instrumental support and indirectly by providing an environment with rules and norms that match the preferences of the employee. Thus, when there is a mismatch in work-life values with coworkers, employees are more susceptible to enduring exhaustion because they lack adequate work-life resources and have to constantly make trade-offs.

Results of past studies endorse the notion that value congruence is negatively related to emotional exhaustion (Leiter et al., 2009). In a study of nurses, Leiter and colleagues (2009) found person-organization fit was significantly, negatively related to burnout. Leiter, Jackson, and Shaugnessy (2009, p. 101) explain, "misfits do not only decrease indication of positive effect at work, such as satisfaction and commitment, but also results in indication of negative affect, including exhaustion and anxiety." Further, Thompson et al. (2009) demonstrated how work-life

value congruence has a negative effect on emotional exhaustion through reduced work-life conflict and greater job satisfaction. Thus, extending the findings of past research on value congruence and emotional exhaustion and incorporating basic tenets of COR and P-E fit theories, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 5. Employee-coworker value congruence is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Serial Mediation of FSWP and Work-Life Conflict

Extending findings from past research and integrating COR and P-E fit theory, I suggest that the psychological process through which employee-coworker value congruence affects job attitudes and employee well-being is via the serial mediation of FSWP and work-life conflict. In other words, sharing congruent work-life values with coworkers can theoretically increase FSWP, thereby reducing work-life conflict, and ultimately diminishing turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion.

As stated previously, employees who have congruent work-life values with coworkers receive better family-support both directly and indirectly. With higher value congruence, employees have more resources in the form of affective support (e.g., coworkers being sympathetic and listening to problems) and instrumental support (e.g., coworkers offering to cover job duties). Thus, value congruence decreases work-life conflict when employees perceive their workgroup is family-supportive because coworkers provide valuable resources to aid balancing job and family demands. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees will reciprocate family-support from their workgroup in the form of lesser turnover intentions. Similarly, if employees do not have congruent values with their coworkers, they will perceive less family-support and higher work-life conflict, which theoretically could increase emotional exhaustion.

Thus, value congruence amplifies perceptions of family-support from the workgroup which in turn decreases work-life conflict. Previous findings demonstrate work-life conflict can both directly and indirectly increase turnover intentions (Amstad et al., 2011; Rode et al., 2007) and emotional exhaustion (Reichl et al., 2014). By integrating core tenets of COR and P-E fit theories and extending findings from past research, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6. FSWP and work-life conflict serially mediate the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 7. FSWP and work-life conflict serially mediate the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and emotional exhaustion.

Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB)

Although coworkers provide valuable work-life support, supervisors also play a vital role in providing support and structuring the norms and rules of the workgroup. Supervisors are often considered the gatekeepers of workplace family-support because they hold the most control over distributing organization-wide policies and work scheduling (e.g., Clark, 2000). Past research finds supervisor family-support boosts employees' well-being, (O'Driscoll et al., 2003), citizenship behaviors (Chen & Chiu, 2008), job satisfaction (Thompson et al., 2006), and minimizes work-life conflict (Pan & Yeh, 2012).

Family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) is defined by Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, and Hanson (2009, p. 839) as "those behaviors exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of families and consists of the following four dimensions—emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management." Supervisors can offer emotional support by being sympathetic and listening to the concerns of the employee. Instrumental support is provided when supervisors reactively manage

subordinates' conflicts and crises. Role modeling behaviors refers to supervisors who mentor subordinates to specifically handle work-life crises (Thompson et al., 2006). Lastly, creative work-life management refers to a strategic, proactive strategy in which managers restructure work demands to adequately balance family demands. For example, family-supportive supervisors can change an employee's work schedules or duties to support an employee's work-life balance. By implementing creative work schedules, supervisors provide employees with additional resources (i.e., time) to devote to personal matters.

Supervisors often have a strong influence over the structure, norms, and rules of a workgroup (Feldman, 1984). For example, supervisors can control how employees balance work and nonwork by influencing their schedules and setting informal and formal rules regarding personal calls or breaks. Thus, supervisors can provide additional resources for employees in the form of FSSB (i.e., emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management). Based on COR theory, because FSSB acts as an additional resource, experiencing both high employee-coworker value congruence and high FSSB should be multiplicative rather than additive in predicting FSWP. Employees are most likely to perceive the workgroup is family-supportive when they experience congruent values with their coworkers and have a family-supportive supervisor. In other words, while there may be a direct, positive relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP, supervisor family-support is likely to further enhance perceptions that the workgroup is family-supportive. Thus, I expect FSSB to moderate the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP. Specifically, I propose the following hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 8.** FSSB moderates the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP. The positive relationship between employee-coworker value

congruence and FSWP is augmented for employees who report having highly family-supportive supervisors.

Method

Procedure and Participants

Data were collected from working adults recruited from a population of students at a large, public university in the southeastern U.S. Participants responded to an anonymous online survey and were not compensated by monetary means but received class credit for their participation. A total of 524 agreed to participate in the survey, and 418 met the eligibility requirements (over 18 years of age, worked at current job for six months or more, and worked 20 or more hours per week). Participants worked in a variety jobs across a number of industries including Retail (13%), Education (12%), Food and Beverage (12%), Health Care (8%), Service (8%), and a variety of others (e.g., Accounting, Apparel, Consulting, Energy, Entertainment, Finance, Sports, and Real Estate).

Employees indicated their age (*M*=23 years, *SD*=5.1), tenure (*M*=2 years, *SD*=2.1), gender (76.8% female), ethnicity (34% White, 36% Hispanic, 19% Asian, 15% African-American), number of dependent children (83% had none, 7% had one, 7% had two, 2% had three, 1% had four or more), marital status (10% married or domestic partnership, 88% single, 2% divorced). The married respondents answered if their spouse worked outside of the home (83% full-time, 14% part-time, 3% no work outside of the home). Furthermore, nine-percent responded they provide care for an elderly family member at least three hours per week.

Measures

Work-life conflict. I measured work-life conflict with eleven items from the work-life conflict scale by Fisher, Bulger, and Smith (2009; α=88). Five items indicated "work interfering

with personal life" and six items indicated "personal life interfering with work." The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix A.

Employee-coworker value congruence. I measured employee-coworker value congruence with five items from the value and attitudinal similarity scale by Nielson et al. (2001; α=.79 with five items, .87 with four items). The referent was changed from "My supervisor and I" to "My coworkers and I" to indicate value congruence between the participant and his or her coworkers. Furthermore, "work-family" was changed to "work-life" and "family" was changed to "personal" to broaden the definition of balancing work and personal life. The response scale ranged from 1 "none" to 5 "many." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix B.

FSWP. I measured FSWP with six items from the family-supportive organization perceptions scale by Allen (2001), condensed by Booth and Matthews (2012; α=.78 with six items, α=.80 with five items). "Organization" was changed to "workgroup." The prompt included a clear definition of a workgroup as "the group of people with whom you work on a daily basis." Furthermore, the prompt provided clarification for the term "work-life" as "the balancing of personal/family life with work." The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix C.

Turnover intentions. I measured turnover intentions with three items from the turnover intentions scale by Becker (1992; α=.74). The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix D.

Emotional exhaustion. I measured emotional exhaustion with five items from the burnout scale by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996; α=.91). The response scale ranged from 1

"strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix E.

FSSB. I measured FSSB with items from the family-supportive supervisor behavior scale by Hammer et al. (2009), condensed by Hammer et al. (2013; α=.89) to four items. The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix F.

Results

Prior to data analysis, I cleaned the data in several steps. First, I deleted the responses from participants who were not eligible to complete the survey (under 18 years of age, worked less than 20 hours a week, or worked for less than 6 months at their current job). Then, I deleted observations of those who started the survey but had inadequate responses (>3/4 missing responses). The final sample size was 418 after removing 106 for being ineligible or having inadequate responses.

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, and sample size), alpha reliability estimates, and the intercorrelation matrix. All scale reliabilities were greater than .70, indicating adequate intrascale reliabilities according to George and Mallery (2003). Next, before my hypothesized analyses, I conducted factor analyses for my scales, tested for the use of control variables, and tested for common method variance.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Coworker, Workgroup, Supervisor)

I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to see if coworker, workgroup, and supervisor constructs were differentiated. I used MPlus (version 6) to perform a confirmatory factor analysis on all of my study items for employee-coworker value congruence, FSWP, and FSSB to see if participants differentiated the support and congruence among three different references (the

coworker, the workgroup, and the supervisor). Because my sample was above 400, I did not use the χ^2 as a fit index because large sample sizes can artificially make the χ^2 statistically significant (see Kenny, 2014). Instead, I used the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) as my fit indices. Hu and Bentler (1999) provide rules of thumb for cutoffs that indicate adequate model fit (i.e., RMSEA less than .06, CFI greater than .95, and SRMR less than .08). These indices of model fit were all borderline acceptable or inadequate. For example, the RMSEA was .06, which is the exact cutoff suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999). Furthermore, the CFI was less than the cutoff .95, at .94. The SRMR was .064, lower than the .08 cutoff for acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). After examination of the unstandardized and standardized factor loadings, I determined two items had lower-than-ideal factor loadings. For example, item 5 of the employee-coworker value congruence scale had a standardized factor loading of .189 and item 1 of the FSWP scale had a standardized factor loading of .267. The low employee-coworker value congruence item was the only reverse-scored item and read "my coworkers in my workgroup and I typically have different perspectives on work–life issues." The low FSWP item was "work should be the primary priority in a person's life."

I dropped the two items in question and repeated the confirmatory factor analysis. The fit indices all improved and indicated acceptable model fit (see Hu & Bentler, 1999). I compared the Akaike information criterion (AIC) for the model without the two items and the model with all items. Since lower values indicate better fit, I concluded the model without those two items was a better fit than the model with all items (AIC=13827.02, AIC=16239.34, respectively). Furthermore, the RMSEA was .047, below the .06 cutoff. The CFI was .978, above the .95

cutoff. The SRMR was .032, well below the .06 cutoff. See Table 2 for the unstandardized and standardized factor loadings.

Furthermore, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis on both models. See Table 3 for the results when all items were included, and see Table 4 for the results when the two items were not included. The exploratory factor analysis indicated all scale items loaded correctly onto the scales when the two items were not included (see Table 4). Thus, I concluded it was best to drop item 5 of employee-coworker value congruence and item 1 of FSWP from all subsequent analyses.

Control Variables

Before performing my hypothesized analyses, I investigated whether age and gender were appropriate to use as control variables in the current study. I followed the suggestions of Parker and Allen (2001) and Spector and Brannick (2011) regarding control variable usage. I found that age was related to FSWP (r = -.10, p < .05) and gender was related to employee-coworker value congruence (r = .10, p < .05) and FSWP (r = .15, p < .01) meaning females rated higher value congruence among coworkers and higher perceptions of workgroup family-support. Age and gender were not related to any other variables in my study. Because age and gender were significantly related to FSWP, one of my dependent variables, and were not substantively related to my constructs of interest, I concluded it was best to include both as control variables.

Common Method Variance

Because the data were collected through self-report, I conducted post-hoc statistical tests aimed to measure common method variance. The problem with having single-source data is that the method with which data is collected (i.e., self-report) may artificially inflate the relationships amongst the study constructs (Spector, 2006). First, I conducted Harmann's single factor test to

see if the majority of the variance of all study items could be explained by a single factor (Harman, 1976). To do this, I constrained the number of factors extracted by the exploratory factor analysis to be one. After examining the unrotated solution, the single factor explained 28.3%, well below the 50% cutoff.

Next, I ran a confirmatory factor analysis with all of the study items loading on their respective constructs and loading onto an uncorrelated latent variable called the "method factor" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The results demonstrated that the average variance explained in the items by the method factor was 21.8%, which is below the 25% average (Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989).

Hypothesized Analyses

In order to test the main-effect hypotheses (Hypotheses 1, 2, 4, and 5), I ran Pearson correlations (see Table 1) and regression analyses with age and gender as control variables. Both Pearson correlations and regression analyses support the main-effect hypotheses, so I report only regression output with age and gender controlled (see Table 5). Hypothesis 1 stated that employee-coworker value congruence would be negatively related to work-life conflict. The regression analyses for Hypothesis 1 indicated that employee-coworker value congruence was significantly, negatively related to work-life conflict (b = -.09, $p < .05$); thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. Hypothesis 2, which predicted that employee-coworker value congruence would be positively related to FSWP was also supported (b = .13, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 4 and 5, which stated that employee-coworker value congruence would be negatively related to turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion, respectively, were also supported (b*'s* = -.26 & -.29, *p*'s < .01, respectively).

Next, to test my mediation hypotheses (i.e., Hypotheses 3, 6, and 7), I used the PROCESS macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2012; 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008) with age and gender as control variables. To test the significance of indirect effects, PROCESS uses bootstrapped confidence intervals, defaulted at 95% with 1000 resamples. Bootstrapping resamples the sample data instead of using a theoretical population sampling distribution. Because bootstrapping resamples from the data, it is robust against the violations of assumptions that are associated with a theoretical sampling distribution (e.g., requiring normal distributions). In particular, because mediation analyses use product terms, the distributions will always be non-normal. Thus, bootstrapping provides truer estimates of standard errors and confidence intervals. Effects are significant when the 95% confidence interval range does not include zero.

I first used PROCESS' model 4 (see Appendix G) to test my simple mediation hypothesis. Hypothesis 3 stated FSWP mediates the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict. The results for this hypothesis are displayed in Table 6 and Figure 2. The indirect effect of employee-coworker value congruence on work-life conflict through FSWP was significant (b = -.05, 95% CI [-.09, -.01]). The total effect was significant (b = -.09, $p < .05$), but the direct effect was non-significant (b = -.04, *ns*). This demonstrates support for Hypothesis 3, that FSWP mediates the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict.

Next, I tested my serial mediation hypotheses (Hypotheses 6 and 7). These hypotheses stated that FSWP and work-life conflict serially mediate the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and turnover intentions (Hypothesis 6) and emotional exhaustion (Hypothesis 7). I used PROCESS' model 6 to test the models with two mediators acting separately and operating in sequence and included three contrasts to see the difference between

the indirect effects (see Appendix G). First, I tested Hypothesis 6 with turnover intentions as the dependent variable. See Table 7 for a summary of the results. After 1000 resamples using the bootstrapping procedure, the results produced a significant indirect effect for FSWP as the sole mediator (b = -.02, 95% CI [-.06, -.01]) and FSWP and work-life conflict as serial mediators (b = -.02, 95% CI [-.05, -.01]). Work-life conflict as the sole mediator was not significant as the 95% confidence interval contained zero (b = -.02, 95% CI [-.06, .02]). The total and direct effects were significant (b's = -.26 & -.20, *p's* < .01, respectively). None of the contrasts were significantly different from zero, meaning the indirect effects were not significantly different from each other. Because the indirect effect of the serial mediation was significant, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

Next, I tested Hypothesis 7 with emotional exhaustion as the dependent variable (see Table 7). The total and direct effects were significant (b's = -.29 & -.20, *p's* < .01, respectively). The results of bootstrapping indicate support for FSWP and work-life conflict as serial mediators (b = -.04, 95% CI [-.07, -.01]) and FSWP as a single mediator (b = -.02, 95% CI [-.05, -.00]). However, the indirect effects of work-life conflict as the sole mediator (b = -.03, 95% CI [-.10, .04]) was not significant. The only contrast that was significant indicated the indirect effect for FSWP and work-life conflict as serial mediators was significantly greater than FSWP as the sole mediator (b = .02, 95% CI [.00, .06]). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Lastly, I tested Hypothesis 8, that FSSB moderates the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP, using moderated regression (see Table 8). In the first model, I added age and gender as control variables. In the next model, I added employee-coworker value congruence and FSSB as predictors. In the final model, I added the interaction term employee-coworker value congruence*FSSB as a predictor of FSWP, which was significant

(b = .09, $p < .05$). Thus, the interaction term added significant incremental variance over-and-above the variance explained by the two independent variables alone. I then followed the steps of Aiken and West (1991) to graphically display the interactions. That is, I centered the predictor and moderator variable to provide unstandardized *b* regression coefficients. Figure 3 shows that the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP is more positive when FSSB is high. Table 9 summarizes the test of simple slope differences which indicates the slope of employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP is not significantly different from zero when FSSB is low (b = -.04, $t = -1.40$, *ns*), but the slope is positive when FSSB is high (b =.13, $t = 4.18$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 8 was supported.

Additional PROCESS Models

FSSB as a moderator. Hypothesis 8 predicted that FSSB would moderate the first stage of the indirect effect of employee-coworker value congruence on FSWP (path *a*), but I also examined whether FSSB moderates the second stage of the indirect effect of FSWP on work-life conflict (path *b*) or the direct effect of employee-coworker value congruence on work-life conflict (path *c'*). See Figure 4 for a visual representation of the model estimated. I used PROCESS' model 59 to test for significant interactions with age and gender as control variables (see Appendix G). The results show that FSSB significantly moderates the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP (i.e., path *a*; b = .09, $p < .05$), which was previously demonstrated with Hypothesis 8 (see Table 8). Furthermore, the results indicated that FSSB also moderated the direct effect between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict (i.e., path *c'*; b = -.08, $p < .05$). FSSB did not moderate the relationship between FSWP and work-life conflict (i.e., path *b*; b = -.03, *ns*). Following the steps of Aiken and West (1991), I graphically displayed the interaction of FSSB on the direct effect (see Figure 5). The

direction demonstrates that the negative relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict is more negative when FSSB is high than when FSSB is low.

Moderated mediation. Finally, I used PROCESS' model 7 (see Appendix G) to test if FSSB moderated the mediation of FSWP between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict with age and gender as control variables. The results indicated that the mediation is moderated by FSSB (see Table 10). The results indicate that the indirect effect of FSWP on employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict is significant only at high levels of FSSB (+1 sd) (b = -.05, 95% CI [-.11, -.01]).

Discussion

The current study lends support to P-E fit theory and COR theory and expands their role in the work-life balance literature. Specifically and bridging COR and P-E fit theories, this is the first study to demonstrate how a new conceptualization of value congruence, employee-coworker value congruence, is related to important work-life constructs and employee outcomes. The findings of this study support P-E fit theory by demonstrating that when an employee has congruent values with coworkers, they are likely to report less strain (i.e., work-life conflict, emotional exhaustion) and develop fewer turnover intentions. Furthermore and consistent with COR theory, the findings demonstrate how coworkers, workgroups (FSWP), and supervisors (FSSB) all may increase employees' resources and enable employees to better manage work and nonwork demands.

Other studies have examined work-life value congruence in regards to supervisors (Thompson et al., 2006), organizations (Chen et al., 2009), or work-life culture (Major et al., 2008) and their effects on work-life balance. My study expands P-E fit theory and adds to the literature by examining a new kind of value congruence, specifically at the employee-coworker

level regarding work-life values. Both COR and P-E fit theories maintain employees have better access to family-supportive resources when they perceive their coworkers share similar values. In alignment with these theories, I suggested that when employees work with coworkers who share similar work-life values, they receive better allocated family-supportive resources and perceive a better fit with the rules and norms of the workgroup. Specifically, coworkers can provide emotional and instrumental support for employees that serve as resources employees can use to perform work and nonwork duties and reduce strain outcomes. Because of these resources and perceived fit, employees are likely to experience less work-life conflict and emotional exhaustion. Similarly, P-E fit theory suggests that long-term misfit can lead to emotional exhaustion through tension built over time. Indeed, the results of this study support the hypotheses that employee-coworker value congruence is negatively related to work-life conflict and emotional exhaustion and in so doing, support the idea that sharing values with coworkers is an important resource that may help reduce strain outcomes. Moreover, the results of this study demonstrate that employee-coworker value congruence is directly related to turnover intentions. Consistent with P-E fit theory, employees who perceive having incongruent work-life values with coworkers are more motivated to leave the environment because of poor fit and thus may report higher intentions to quit.

Another unique contribution of this study is the introduction of FSWP, a construct that indicates perceptions that the workgroup in which one works is family-supportive. FSWP is derived from the construct family-supportive organization perceptions (FSOP), and it exclusively measures how family-supportive a workgroup is. Workgroups often have unique rules and norms that may or may not be indicative of overall organizational cultures or policies. For example, organizations may offer work-life policies such as parental leave that workgroups

informally rebuke employees for using. According to P-E fit theory, employees who share congruent values with coworkers are more likely to perceive their workgroup fulfills their socio-emotional needs and is more family-supportive. Correspondingly, workgroup family-support acts as a valuable resource to aid employees balancing work and nonwork demands. Indeed, results indicate that value congruence is positively related to FSWP and support the mediating role that FSWP plays between value congruence and work-life conflict. These findings show that the psychological process through which employee-coworker value congruence is negatively related to work-life conflict is through enhanced FSWP. These findings contribute to COR and P-E fit theories by demonstrating that having congruent work-life values with coworkers may enable employees to better manage the demands of work and nonwork demands because their workgroups provide family-supportive resources, rules, and norms that are tailored to their preferences.

I also build on the literature by using P-E fit and COR theories to investigate the psychological process through which employee-coworker value congruence may influence turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion. According to P-E fit theory, the perception that employees share similar work-life values with coworkers signifies the presence of coworkers who can more readily provide resources such as emotional, instrumental, and informational support, as well as companionship (i.e., FSWP), that in turn may lower work-life conflict, and by extension reduce turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion (i.e., serial mediation). As hypothesized, the results indicate that in addition to having direct effects on turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion, employee-coworker value congruence is indirectly related to lower levels of emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions through the serial mediation of higher FSWP and lower work-life conflict. In other words and bridging COR and P-E fit theories, my

results indicate that one reason why employee-coworker value congruence is related to turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion is because employees perceive more family-support from their workgroups that may reduce their work-life conflict.

In addition to a significant indirect effect through FSWP and work-life conflict, employee-coworker value congruence was also indirectly related to turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion through FSWP alone. That is, another explanation for employees reporting less intentions to quit their jobs is simply because employees with high value congruence sense higher FSWP. However in predicting emotional exhaustion, the results suggested the serial mediation indirect effect was greater than FSWP as a sole mediator. In other words, FSWP and work-life conflict explained more of the relationship than FSWP alone explained between employee-coworker value congruence and emotional exhaustion. Further, the direct effects of employee-coworker value congruence on both turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion appeared to be stronger than the indirect effects. This could signify there are other psychological processes that explain the relationship. For example, past P-E fit research suggests value congruence increases organizational attractiveness which could diminish intentions to quit (Cable & Judge, 1996). Ton, Wang, and Peng (2015) demonstrated that person-job fit and role conflict may mediate the relationship between value congruence and burnout.

Lastly, I investigated whether FSSB moderated the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP. Applying COR theory, I suggested that employee-coworker value congruence itself acts as a resource because it leads to more appropriate affective and instrumental support from coworkers. Similarly, supervisors can also provide valuable resources in the form of emotional and instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management (Greenhaus, Ziegart, & Allen, 2012; Hammer et al., 2009)

such that they augment the influence of employee-coworker value congruence on FSWP. The results were consistent with my hypothesized effect and demonstrated that employees who report having a family-supportive supervisor and who share similar work-life values with coworkers report having the highest levels of FSWP (see Figure 3). Post-hoc results also suggested FSSB moderated both the direct relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict and the mediation of FSWP between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict. However, contrary to expectations, when participants had low levels of FSSB, employee-coworker value congruence was unrelated to FSWP. That is, FSWP explained the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict only when participants reported their supervisors were highly family-supportive. This finding differed from my expectations. I had predicted the relationship of employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict to be positive, but weaker, when participants perceived low FSSB. The results suggest supervisors play a vital role in employees perceiving their workgroup is family-supportive. It may be the case that having congruent values with one's coworkers only increases FSWP when FSSB is high. Without a family-supportive supervisor, employees may not perceive the workgroup as highly family-supportive, no matter what value congruence they achieve with coworkers. Specifically, the benefits of resources available when employees share values with coworkers may be negated when supervisors are unsupportive of employee efforts to balance work and family demands.

Practical Implications

In addition to having theoretical implications, the results of this study may have practical implications for managers and organizations. Because employee-coworker value congruence is related to important employee outcomes, organizations may consider taking action to increase it.

For example, organizations may want to monitor if employees perceive they have congruent work-life values with their coworkers. It may be in companies' best interest to ensure employees are placed in workgroups with coworkers who are supportive of their family needs. Organizations could have policies in place that when misfit is observed or reported, employees can transfer positions to more suitable workgroups when possible.

Furthermore, organizations may aim to increase FSWP amongst employees. In the past, organizations have tried to attenuate employees' work-life conflict by altering formal work-life policies or training supervisors to be more supportive of work-life balance (Chen et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 2006). The results of this study suggest there are other avenues besides organizational and supervisor family-support that can affect work-life conflict. Specifically, perceptions of workgroup family-support may also play a vital role for employees balancing work and nonwork. Organizations may aim to affect the workgroup-level by increasing family-supportive perceptions amongst all employees. For example, organizations should establish a culture throughout the organization that extends past supervisors and formal policies that affects how all employees in workgroups embody a family-friendly atmosphere. Again, through monitoring or reporting, organizations should take action if employees perceive a certain workgroup is unsupportive of work-life balance.

The results of the study also demonstrate that family-supportive supervisor behaviors are related to high levels of FSWP and lower work-life conflict for employees. Thus, organizations could aim to increase FSSB amongst supervisors by providing support and training. Past research demonstrates both computer-based and face-to-face FSSB training can increase FSSB amongst supervisors (Hammer et al., 2011). In turn, subordinates benefit by reporting higher job

satisfaction and lower family-to-nonwork conflict and turnover intentions once their supervisors complete FSSB training.

Strengths and Limitations

This study includes a large, ethnically diverse sample of working adults. The participants worked in a variety of different types of jobs and industries (e.g., retail, education, food, health care, accounting, finance) and were from different ethnic backgrounds (34% White, 36% Hispanic, 19% Asian, 15% African-American). Having an ethnically diverse sample from a variety of jobs helps because the results of the study generalize to a broad range of occupations and with employees with different ethnicities.

Despite the noteworthy and significant results of the study, there are some limitations. First, the sample of participants were very young (M=23 years, SD=5.1), mostly female (76.8%), and many reported not being married (88% single) or having children (83% had no children). Thus, it is possible these participants do not experience work-life conflict as do older, married employees with children who balance different work and personal demands. In order to account for the fact that the participants may not experience typical work and "family" balance, I measured work-life conflict using measures of work and "personal life" rather than work and "family." The results should still have bearing for all employees who juggle work demands with demands from their personal life.

Next, the methodology of the study introduces some limitations. For example, the study was cross-sectional in nature and only used self-report measures. Because the study is cross-sectional, I cannot provide causal evidence for the relationships between employee-coworker value congruence, FSWP, emotional exhaustion, or turnover intentions. However, theoretical evidence provides arguments for the direction of these relationships. Because the participants

provided all self-report data, common method variance could be an issue in which the relationships among constructs are inflated simply due to the fact that they come from a single source. As demonstrated previously in my analyses, post-hoc common method variance analyses indicated a single "method factor" explained 21.8% of the variance of the items (less than 25% average; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989).

Also, the scales and items themselves may have some limitations. For example, the confirmatory factor analysis indicated one item had low factor loadings for the employee-coworker value congruence scale and one item had low loadings for the FSWP scale. One explanation is that the participants did not read carefully the items and did not respond to a reverse-scored item in the proper way. Because the participants had no incentive besides class credit, it is possible the participants did not have motivation to carefully read and respond to each item.

Next, the scale for employee-coworker value congruence may not fully represent what value congruence means. For example, there are different ways to interpret what value congruence could signify. A participant may respond with high value congruence when they perceive congruent values that are family-supportive or they could perceive congruent values of prioritizing work. Because of this discrepancy, there is room for future research on the topic to establish if the direction of value congruence changes the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and other study constructs. For example, the mediation of FSWP may be limited only for those participants who perceive having congruent work-life values which prioritize family.

Finally, the FSWP scale and employee-coworker congruence scale had prompts that clarified how coworkers were "all of the people with whom you work on a daily basis." It is

possible that some participants think supervisors fall under this classification. Thus, a limitation of the study is that the scales do not include a clarification that says coworkers are "all of the people with whom you work on a daily basis *who are not your supervisor(s)*." The confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses do lend some support that participants successfully differentiated between workgroups, coworkers, and supervisors; however, these prompts should provide better definitions in future studies.

Due to the limitations of the study, there may be some possible alternative explanations of the results. Whereas theory suggests coworkers and supervisors may influence work-life conflict and employee attitudes and health, it is possible that the relationships are inversed. For example, an emotionally exhausted employee may lack the necessary emotional resources to accomplish work and nonwork demands, which could then lead to work-life conflict. According to the mood-as-information theory (MAI), employees may form evaluative judgments such as value congruence by using their feelings as information (Schwarz & Clore, 2003). A satisfied, happy employee may respond that they have congruent values with their coworkers simply because they are overall satisfied with their job instead of assessing they truthfully share congruent work-life values with their coworkers. Thus, the effects of value congruence on work-life conflict and employee outcomes may not be causal in nature. However, the results from post-hoc analyses of common method variance support that an overall "mood effect" does not explain the majority of the variance amongst constructs.

Directions for Future Research

The results of this study offer many directions for future research. First, researchers could conduct studies with workgroups nested in organizations using multilevel modeling to investigate the aggregated effects of coworkers in workgroups rather than individual perceptions.

One could, for example, see if individual- or workgroup-level constructs influence employees' work-life conflict, health, and attitudes. It is possible that FSWP is a shared perception among coworkers that should be aggregated to a workgroup-level rather than the individual-level.

There are also other constructs that could be explored as moderators when using multilevel modeling. For example, workgroup cohesion could moderate the relationship between employee-coworker value congruence and FSWP and work-life conflict. That is, if members of a workgroup are not cohesive and/or interdependent, the effects of perceptions of coworkers could have little impact on work-life conflict or perceptions of a family-supportive workgroup. Group size and diversity may also play a role. For example, having a diverse, large workgroup may increase FSWP when diversity climate is high and coworkers are accepting of others' work-life values even when different from their own. Alternatively, a more homogeneous workgroup may have stauncher rules or norms that may or may not be congruent with work-life values of some employees.

Furthermore, researchers could conduct studies that have data collected at multiple time points. This would aid researchers in concluding the causality and direction of the effects. For example, a study could be designed to look at multiple workgroups embedded in multiple organizations to investigate changes over time. Specifically, the study could follow employees' tenure in workgroups to see if the makeup of the workgroup and coworkers affects work-life conflict or employee attitudes and health over time.

Finally, researchers could investigate the specifics of employee-coworker value congruence by using different measures. For example, the direction of value congruence may differ regarding if a person has congruent work-life values that prioritize work or congruent work-life values that reinforce segmentation preferences. Thus, researchers may want to see if

value congruence for particular work-life values has a different effect on work-life conflict and FSWP than others. It is likely that perceiving congruent work-life values that prioritize family is more positively related to FSWP. Researchers who conduct future studies on the topic may want to measure value congruence by analyzing the agreement of actual work-life values (e.g., prioritizing work or family, segmentation preferences) amongst coworkers in a workgroup.

Conclusions

The results of this study present many opportunities for researchers who choose to study employee-coworker value congruence and perceptions of workgroup family-support. In fact, because organizations are becoming increasingly flattened, the results of this study are timely to today's workforce. My study suggests employees benefit when they perceive they work with coworkers who share similar work-life values. In particular, the results of this study indicate perceptions of coworkers and workgroups are indeed related to employees' work-life balance, attitudes, and health.

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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Reliabilities, and Correlation Matrix

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. E-C Value Congruence	3.35	.85	(.87)							
2. Work-Life Conflict	2.71	.73	-.12*	(.88)						
3. FSWP	3.52	.83	.11*	-.44**	(.80)					
4. Turnover Intentions	2.95	1.00	-.22**	.40**	-.31**	(.74)				
5. Emotional Exhaustion	3.07	1.00	-.24**	.59**	-.35**	.56**	(.91)			
6. FSSB	3.48	.98	.43**	-.26**	.26**	-.43**	-.41**	(.89)		
7. Age	22.96	5.09	-.00	-.02	-.10*	.02	.00	-.08		
8. Gender	1.77	.42	.10*	-.08	.15**	-.02	.03	-.01	-.01	

Note. N ranged from 416 to 418. Numbers in parentheses along the diagonal are estimated (α) reliabilities, where applicable. E-C Value Congruence = Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors. For Gender, 1=Male, 2=Female.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 2. Unstandardized and Standardized Factor Loadings from Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Parameter	Standardized	SE	Unstandardized
E-C Value Congruence			
ECVC1	0.739	0.026	1.000
ECVC2	0.831	0.021	1.133
ECVC3	0.814	0.022	1.162
ECVC4	0.791	0.023	1.141
FSWP			
FSWP2	0.466	0.043	1.000
FSWP3	0.758	0.029	1.739
FSWP4	0.715	0.031	1.553
FSWP5	0.792	0.028	1.977
FSWP6	0.609	0.037	1.626
FSSB			
FSSB1	0.757	0.024	1.000
FSSB2	0.806	0.021	1.052
FSSB3	0.894	0.016	1.180
FSSB4	0.821	0.020	1.081

Note. E-C Value Congruence = Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors, SE= standard error. All factor loading estimates are statistically significant at $p < .01$.

Table 3. Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP, and FSSB

	Factor		
	1	2	3
FSWP1	-.113	**.440**	-.168
FSWP2	-.064	**.641**	.100
FSWP3	.294	**.726**	.003
FSWP4	.108	**.784**	.074
FSWP5	.188	**.780**	.065
FSWP6	.159	**.661**	-.023
FSSB1	**.791**	.069	.203
FSSB2	**.874**	.086	.218
FSSB3	**.849**	.068	.157
FSSB4	**.835**	.056	.178
ECVC1	.171	.021	**.795**
ECVC2	.221	.051	**.836**
ECVC3	.165	.067	**.836**
ECVC4	.196	.021	**.816**
ECVC5	-.124	**.475**	.266
Eigenvalue	4.66	2.71	1.77
% of Variance	20.95	41.24	60.97

Note. Factor 1: Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior; Factor 2: Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions; Factor 3: Employee-Coworker Value Congruence; The factor loadings of each item in the measure on each factor are in boldface.

Table 4. Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation of Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP, and FSSB without Item 5 of ECVC and Item 1 of FSWP

	Factor		
	1	2	3
FSWP2	-.085	.102	**.626**
FSWP3	.241	.003	**.772**
FSWP4	.060	.079	**.786**
FSWP5	.137	.061	**.818**
FSWP6	.112	-.020	**.700**
FSSB1	**.790**	.206	.104
FSSB2	**.873**	.218	.123
FSSB3	**.855**	.157	.095
FSSB4	**.840**	.174	.088
ECVC1	.166	**.797**	.047
ECVC2	.220	**.837**	.059
ECVC3	.155	**.843**	.090
ECVC4	.170	**.812**	.027
Eigenvalue	4.59	2.47	1.69
% of Variance	23.47	45.56	67.26

Note. Factor 1: Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior; Factor 2: Employee-Coworker Value Congruence; Factor 3: Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions; The factor loadings of each item in the measure on each factor are in boldface.

Table 5. Results of Simple Regression of Work-Life Conflict, FSWP, Turnover Intentions, and Emotional Exhaustion on Employee-Coworker Value Congruence

Criterion	Work-Life Conflict		FSWP		Turnover Intentions		Emotional Exhaustion	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Age	-.00	-.00	-.02*	-.02*	.00	.00	.00	.00
Gender	-.15	-.13	-.30**	-.28**	-.08	-.02	-.04	.10
E-C Value Congruence		-.09*		.13**		-.26**		-.29**

Note. E-C Value Congruence = Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, For Gender, 1=Male, 2=Female.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 6. FSWP Mediating Employee-Coworker Value Congruence and Work-Life Conflict

Mediation	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	SE	95% CI LL	95% CI UL
EC-FSWP-WLC	-.09*	-.04	-.05	.02	-.09	-.01

Note. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. Values that do not contain 0 within the 95% confidence intervals yield significant effects. EC=Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, WLC=Work-Life Conflict, CI= confidence interval, LL = lower limit, UL= upper limit, SE= standard error. The standard errors and confidence intervals refer to the indirect effects, specifically.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 7. Results of PROCESS for Serial Mediations

			95% CI	
	Effect	SE	LL	UL
Total effect: EC-TI	-.26**	.06	-.38	-.15
Direct effect: EC-TI	-.20**	.06	-.31	-.09
Indirect Effects:				
EC-FSWP-TI	-.02*	.01	-.06	-.01
EC-FSWP-WLC-TI	-.02*	.01	-.05	-.01
EC-WLC-TI	-.02	.02	-.06	.02
(Contrast 1)	-.00	.01	-.03	.02
(Contrast 2)	-.00	.02	-.05	.04
(Contrast 3)	-.00	.02	-.05	.04
Total effect: EC-EE	-.29**	.06	-.40	-.17
Direct effect: EC-EE	-.20**	.05	-.30	-.11
Indirect Effects:				
EC-FSWP-EE	-.02*	.01	-.05	-.00
EC-FSWP-WLC-EE	-.04*	.01	-.07	-.01
EC-WLC-EE	-.03	.03	-.10	.04
(Contrast 4)	.02*	.01	.00	.06
(Contrast 5)	.01	.03	-.05	.08
(Contrast 6)	-.01	.03	-.08	.06

Note. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. EC=Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, WLC=Work-Life Conflict, TI=Turnover Intentions, EE=Emotional Exhaustion, CI= confidence interval, LL = lower limit, UL= upper limit, SE= standard error. Confidence intervals that do not contain 0 are deemed significant.

Contrast 1 = difference of indirect effect of EC-FSWP-TI and EC- FSWP-WLC-TI.
Contrast 2 = difference of indirect effect of EC-FSWP-TI and EC- WLC-TI.

Contrast 3 = difference of indirect effect of EC-FSWP-WLC-TI and EC-WLC-TI.

Contrast 4 = difference of indirect effect of EC-FSWP- EE and EC-FSSB-WLC-EE.

Contrast 5 = difference of indirect effect of EC-FSWP- EE and EC-WLC- EE.

Contrast 6 = difference of indirect effect of EC-FSWP-WFC- EE and EC-WLC- EE.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 8. Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Predicting FSWP

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Age	-.02*	-.01	-.01
Gender	.30**	.29**	.27**
Employee-Coworker Value Congruence (EC)		.03	.04
FSSB		.19**	.21**
EC X FSSB			.09*
R^2	.03	.09	.11
Adjusted R^2	.03	.08	.09
ΔR^2		.06**	.01*

Note. FSSB= Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors, EC=Employee-Coworker Value Congruence, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions. For Gender, 1=Male, 2=Female.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 9. Tests of Simple Slope Differences between Employee-Coworker Value Congruence and FSWP

Group	Slope	SE	*t*
(1) Low FSSB	-.04	0.03	-1.40
(2) High FSSB	.13**	0.03	4.18**

Note. FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, SE=standard error.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 10. Results of PROCESS for Conditional Effects of Employee-Coworker Value Congruence on Work-Life Conflict via FSWP at Values of the Moderator (FSSB)

				95% CI	
Mediator	FSSB	Effect	SE	LL	UL
FSWP	2.50	.01	.03	-.03	.07
FSWP	3.48	-.02	.02	-.05	.03
FSWP	4.46	-.05*	.03	-.11	-.01

Note. Mean approach represents -1/+1 SD and the mean value of the moderator. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. FSSB= Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors, FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, CI = confidence interval, LL = lower limit, UL= upper limit, SE= standard error.

* Significant effect (confidence interval does not contain 0).

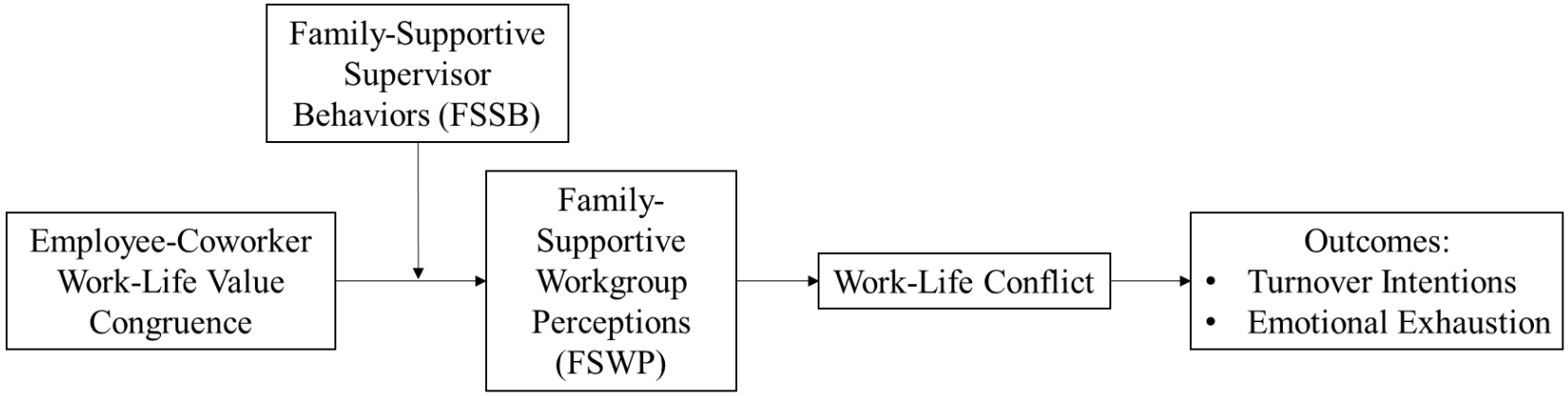


Figure 1. The hypothesized model.

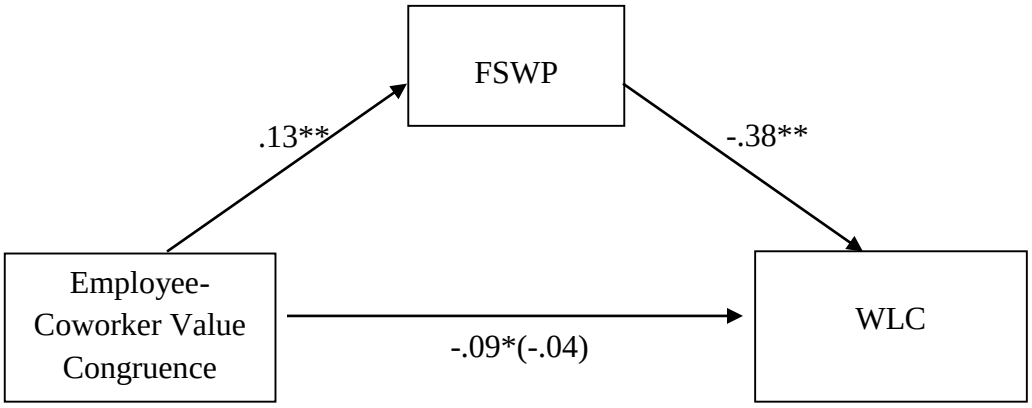


Figure 2. Unstandardized path coefficients for employee-coworker value congruence to work-life conflict through FSWP.

Note. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. The direct effect is presented in parentheses. FSWP = Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions, WLC=Work-Life Conflict. Indirect effect of employee-coworker value congruence on WLC through FSWP was significant (b = -.04, 95% CI [-.08, -. 00]).

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

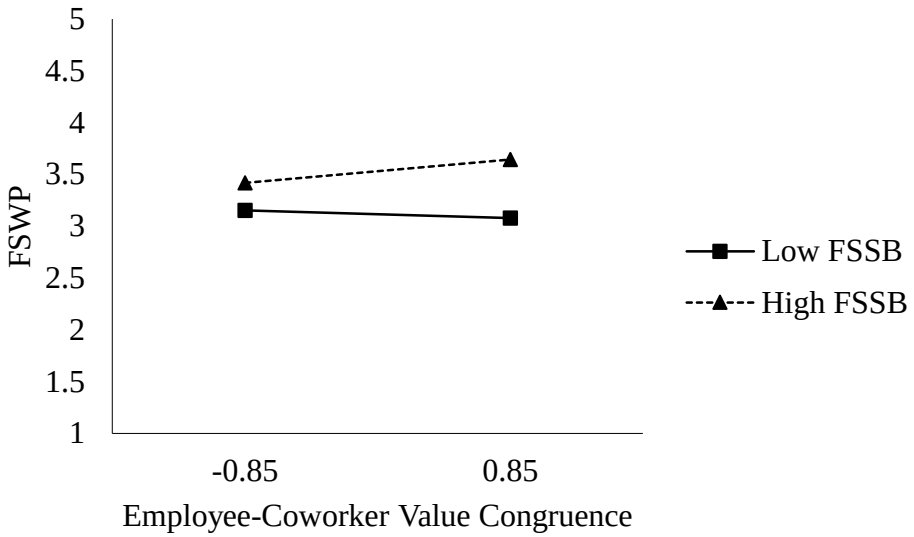


Figure 3. Employee-coworker value congruence and family-supportive workgroup perceptions (FSWP): The moderating effect of family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB)

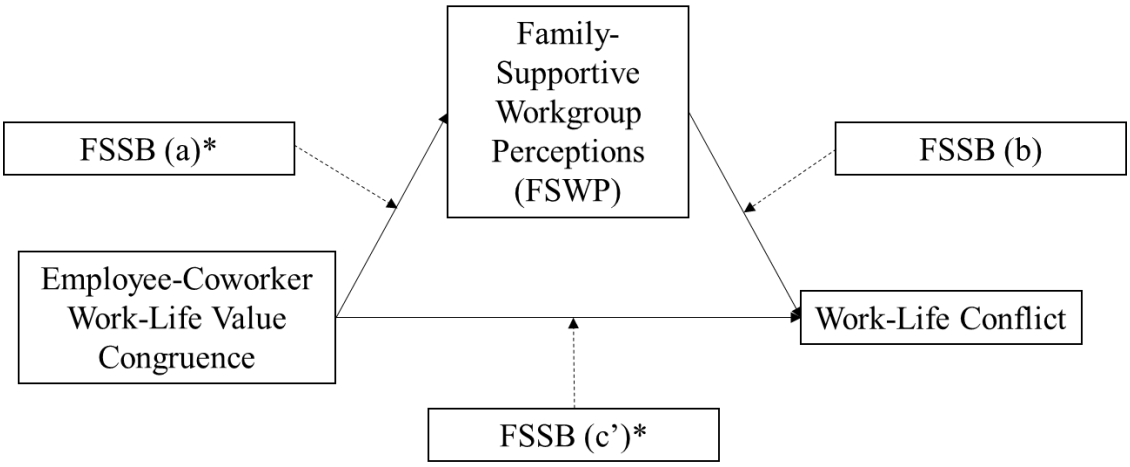


Figure 4. PROCESS' model 59: FSSB moderating three paths

Note. Interactions at paths *a* and *c'* were significant.

* $p < .05$ for interaction term

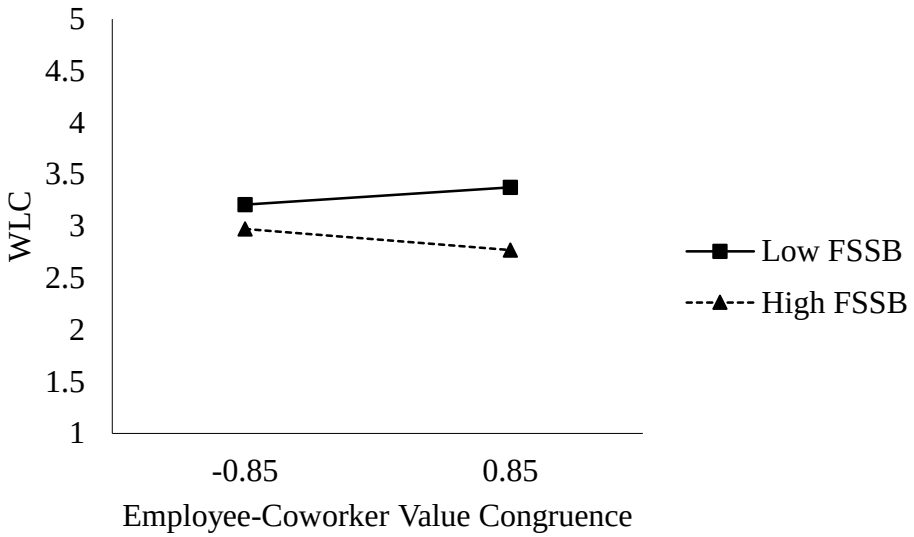


Figure 5. Employee-coworker value congruence and work-life conflict (WLC): The moderating effect of family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB)

Appendix A

Work-Life Conflict Scale (Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009)

Work interfering with personal life:

1. I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do.
2. My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like.
3. I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work.
4. My personal life suffers because of my work.
5. I have to miss out on important personal activities due to the amount of time I spend doing work.

Personal life interfering with work:

6. My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job.
7. My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life.
8. I would devote more time to work if it weren't for everything I have going on in my personal life.
9. I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life.
10. When I'm at work, I worry about things I need to do outside work.
11. I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters at work.

Appendix B

Employee-Coworker Value Congruence Scale (Nielson et al., 2001)

Prompt:

"To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your WORKGROUP (your workgroup includes all of the people with whom you work on a daily basis). 'Work-life' refers to balancing your personal/family life with work."

1. My coworkers in my workgroup and I have similar views regarding work–life issues.
2. My coworkers in my workgroup and I value similar levels of work–life balance.
3. My coworkers in my workgroup and I have similar priorities in terms of our work and personal roles.
4. My coworkers in my department and I have similar concerns about achieving a balance of work and personal demands.
5. My coworkers in my workgroup and I typically have different perspectives on work–life issues. (R)

Appendix C

Family-Supportive Workgroup Perceptions Scale (Allen, 2001; condensed by Booth & Matthews, 2012)

Prompt: "To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your WORKGROUP (your workgroup includes all of the people with whom you work on a daily basis). Remember, these are not your own personal beliefs, but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your WORKGROUP."

1. Work should be the primary priority in a person's life. (R)
2. In my workgroup, employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work. (R)
3. In my workgroup, attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon. (R)
4. In my workgroup, individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work. (R)
5. In my workgroup, it is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life. (R)
6. In my workgroup, the ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day. (R)

Appendix D

Turnover Intentions Scale (Becker, 1992)

1. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year.
2. I often think about quitting.
3. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.

Appendix E

Emotional Exhaustion Scale (Maslach et al., 1996)

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. Working all day is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from work.

Appendix F

Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior Scale (Hammer et al., 2009; condensed by Hammer et al., 2013)

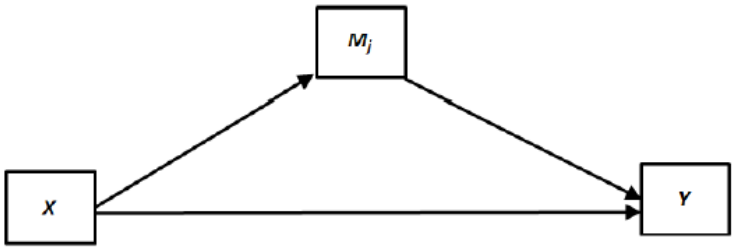
1. My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and nonwork.
2. My supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork.
3. My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and nonwork balance.
4. My supervisor organizes the work in my department to jointly benefit employees and the organization.

Appendix G

PROCESS Models Used in Analyses

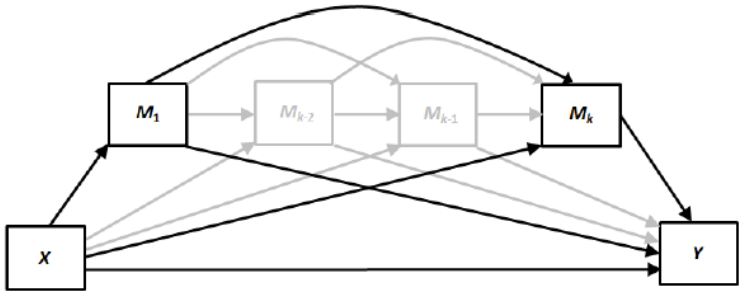
Model 4

Conceptual Model



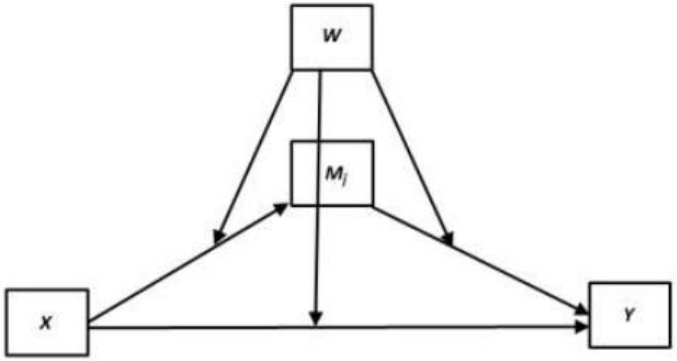
Model 6

Conceptual Model



Model 59

Conceptual Model



Model 7

Conceptual Model